CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE WESTERN PORTION OF A 150-ACRE TRACT FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF BOATHOUSES, MONTGOMERY COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA

CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 405

CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE WESTERN PORTION OF A 150-ACRE TRACT FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF BOATHOUSES, MONTGOMERY COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive cultural resources survey of the western portion of a 150-acre tract located in southwestern Montgomery County, North Carolina. The work was conducted to assist Chambers Engineering comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The tract, which borders SR-1181 to the south and the Pee Dee River to the west will be developed for single family occupancy. Along the waterfront there will be boathouses or docks and we understand this has necessitated the current cultural resources study. The surrounding area is relatively undeveloped, however private homes are scattered along the Pee Dee River and a golf course community has already been constructed nearby.

The proposed undertaking will require the clearing of the tract, followed by construction of various infrastructure elements, such as roads, stormwater drainage, and utilities. Individual lot construction will involve grading, additional utility construction, and subsequent building of structures. These activities have the potential to affect archaeological and historical sites and this survey was conducted to identify and assess archaeological and historical sites that may be in the project tract. For this study and area of potential effect (APE) 0.5 mile from the proposed tract was assumed.

An investigation of the archaeological site files at the Raleigh, North Carolina Office of State Archaeology failed to identify any previous sites recorded in the APE. In addition, the maps at the North Carolina Architectural Branch were consulted to see if any National Register of Historic Places sites were in the vicinity of the project area. None were identified.

The archaeological survey of the tract incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals on transects which were placed at 100-foot intervals around the edge of the Pee Dee River. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study. A total of 226 shovel tests were excavated along 48 transect lines. In addition, close interval testing was performed at 50-foot intervals at the identified sites.

As a result of these investigations four archaeological site, 31MG1738-1741, were found. Sites 31MG1738 and 31MG1740, consisted of only prehistoric flakes and did not contain the data sets or artifact density necessary to address significant research questions. Site 31MG1741 consisted of flakes and one pottery sherd and cannot be used to address significant research questions. Site 31MG1739, in addition to prehistoric flakes, contained one diagnostic projectile point dating to the late Archaic. This site, like the previous three sites, did not contain the data sets or the artifact density needed to address significant research questions. All four sites are recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

Finally, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Steve Chambers of Chambers Engineering in Albemarle, North Carolina. The work was conducted to assist Chambers Engineering and their client comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project site consists of the western portion of a 150-acre tract proposed to be used for residential development north of the city of Mount Gilead, North Carolina (Figure 1). The survey area is rectangular in shape with the western portion bordering the Pee Dee River , the southern portion running along SR-1181, and the eastern portion bordering SR-1111 (Figure 2). The northern boundary is an arbitrary line located in a mixed pine and hardwood forest.

The tract consists of hilly topography with the western portion of the tract sloping down to the Pee Dee River. The entire survey area is forested in mixed pine and hardwoods, mature hardwoods, and planted pines. The surrounding area is fairly rural, however, private homes are being built along the river along with some residential neighborhoods, including a nearby golf course community.

The tract, as previously mentioned, is intended for a residential development. We understand that this survey was necessitated by the intention to construct docks and/or boathouses along the waterfront. This work will require the construction of utilities such as electrical lines as well as an expanded road system when development begins. There will likely be increased short-term noise, traffic, and dust levels associated with the project. These activities have the potential to damage or otherwise affect any cultural resources which may be present on the tract.

This study, however, does not consider any future secondary impact of the project, including increased or expanded development of this portion of Montgomery County. This study also does not report on the eastern two-thirds of the 150-acre tract.

We were requested by Mr. Michael Wolfe of Water Oak to provide a proposal for the survey on February 25, 2004. A proposal was supplied on the next day. An updated proposal was supplied to Mr. Steve Chambers of Chambers Engineering on March 2. Field work on the project began on March 8.

Initial background investigations incorporated a review of the site files at the North Carolina State Historic Preservation Office and the Office of State Archaeology. As a result of that work no sites were identified in the 0.5 mile APE. Examination of architectural sites at the North Carolina Architectural Branch also failed to identify any previously recorded sites.

Archival and historical research was limited to a review of secondary sources available in the Chicora Foundation files.

The archaeological survey was conducted from March 8-11, 2004 by Ms. Nicole Southerland and Mr. Tom Covington under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley.

This report details the investigation of the project area undertaken by Chicora Foundation and the results of that investigation.

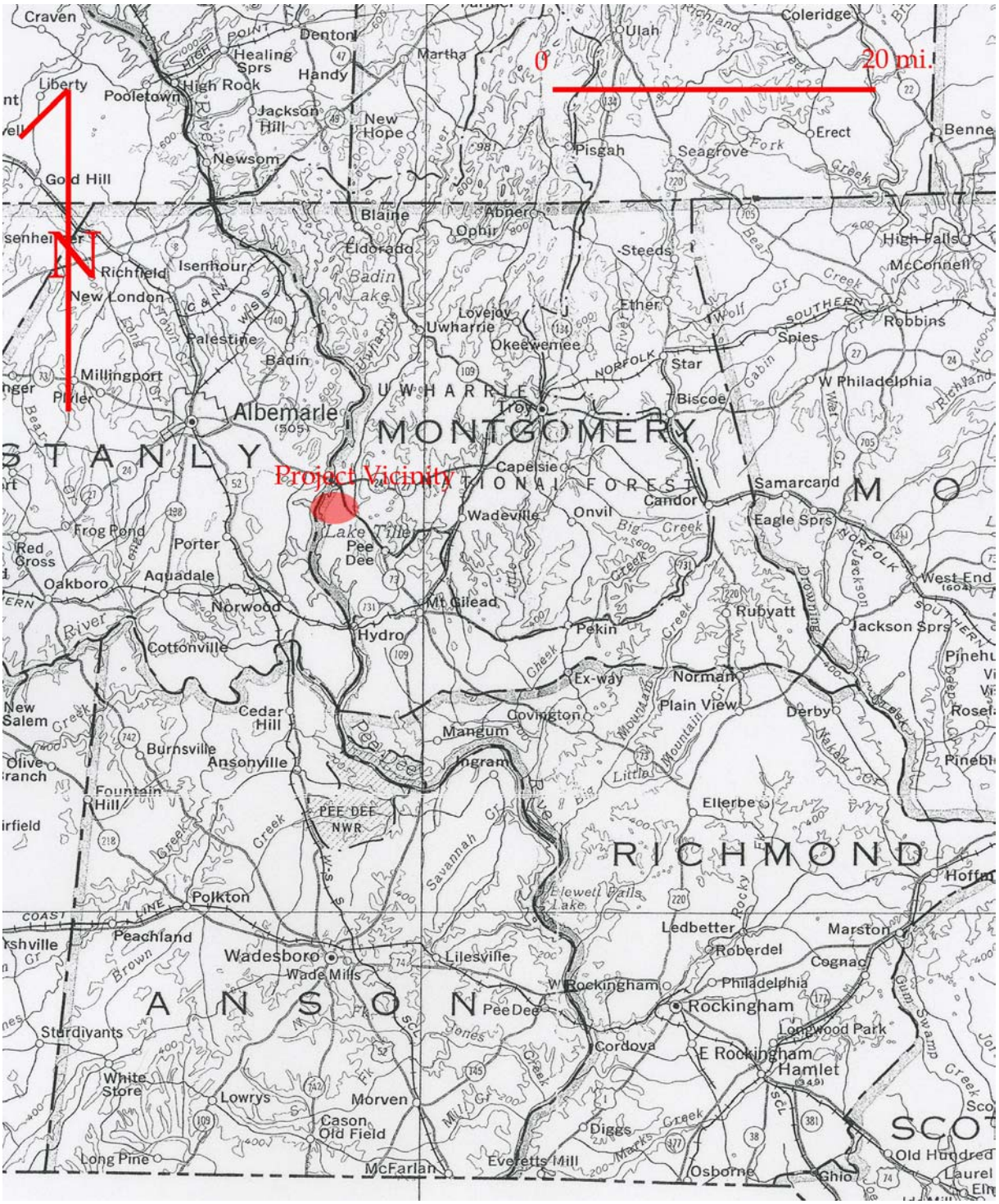

Figure 1. Project vicinity in Montgomery County (basemap is USGS North Carolina 1:500,000).

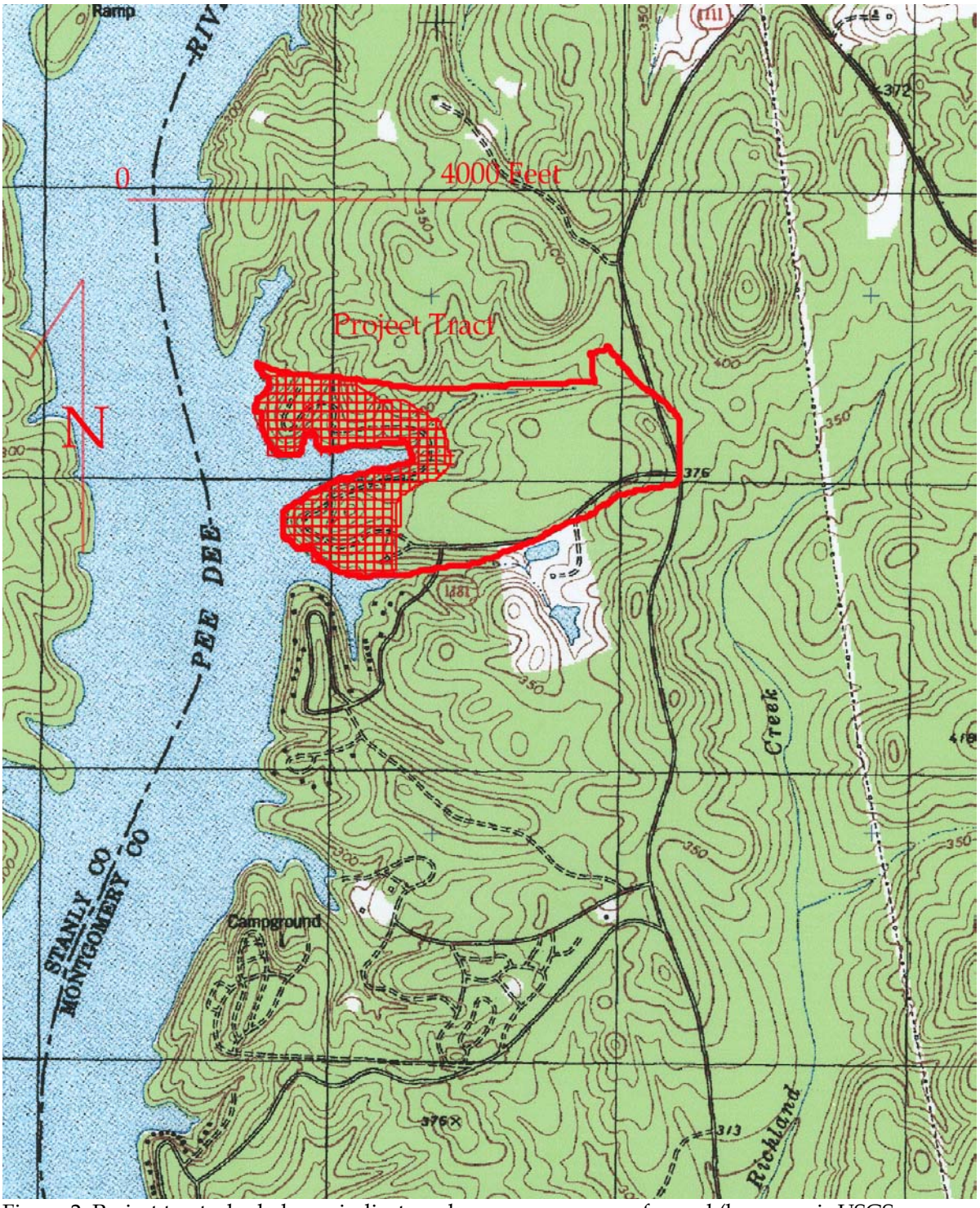

Figure 2. Project tract, shaded area indicates where survey was performed (basemap is USGS Morrow Mountain 7.5').

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiography

The project tract is located in Mongomery County, within the North Carolina Piedmont. To the north, Montgomery County is bounded by Davidson and Randolph counties, to the east is Moore County, and to the south is Richmond County. To the west, Mongomery is bordered by Stanly County with the two counties separated by the Pee Dee River.

The Piedmont, bounded on the east by the Fall Line and on the west by the Blue Ridge scarp, is about 142 miles wide in North Carolina. The name itself means "foot of the mountains," an appropriate term for topography which is characterized by rolling eroded plateaus, rounded hills, and low ridges.

Elevations at the county-seat of Troy boasts an elevation of 625 feet AMSL (Jurney and Davis 1930:1). Elevations in the survey area are less, ranging from 270 to 300 feet AMSL, although the topography is characterized by steeply sloping hills.

The Piedmont has dominated the topography of North Carolina, giving rise to many descriptions. One recounts that:

> the tumultuous continuity of mountains subsides into gentle undulations, a secession of hills and dales, a variety and charm of landscape, alike different from the high, uplifted mountain elevations and the flat monotony of the plains or levels of the east. Every step brings into view some new charm, some new arrangement of the rounded hills, some new grouping of the tracts of forest which still cover so large a part of the country. The hills, indeed, in their gracefully curving outlines, present lines of beauty with which the eye of taste is never satiated. These area attractions which depend upon the permanent features of the landscape, and which, though infinitely heightened in their effects by the verdure of spring and summer, are only brought into fuller relief by the nakedness of winter (State Board of Agriculture 1896:24).

Climate

The state of North Carolina lies within a general climatic region known as the Humid Subtropical. Moisture is adequate throughout the year, historically supporting very dense forests and an exceptional range of agricultural crops. Temperatures are moderate with long (and often hot, humid) summers and brief winters (with cold, dank conditions). Snowfall occurs, but is usually limited to the mountains. Gade et al. note that:

> air masses accounting for this climate are controlled by a variety of locational phenomena such as latitude, altitude, mountain barriers, and land and water surface differences . . . . Warm, moist air from the maritime tropics dominates summer conditions while cooler, drier continental polar air controls winter weather (Gade et al. 1986:15).

In general, the Piedmont enjoys this

Figure 3. View of woods road among mixed pines and hardwood forest.

favorable climate. The relatively moderate temperatures, coupled with adequate precipitation and generally well drained clay soils creates a setting favorable for a wide variety of crops and native plants. The average high temperature for the summer months is 77.1˚F while the average low for the winter is 42.8˚F (Jurney and Davis 1930:4).

The most precipitation falls in the spring and summer months with a combined average of 13.88 inches of rain, while the average annual snowfall is about 6.7 inches (Jurney and Davis 1930:3-4).

Geology and Soils

North Carolina exhibits increasing age and complexity of rock types from east to west, resulting from the various periods of uplift and subsidence with accompanying erosion and later deposition of materials. The Piedmont contains a range of primarily crystalline rocks alternating with sedimentary in down faulted basins. Some of these include sandstones, shale, conglomerate, and even coal (Gade et al. 1986: 146).

Montgomery County is dominated by gneiss and schist rocks in an area known as the Carolina Slate Belt, which is derived from volcanic sediments and is an important source of fine grained quarry rock as well as a range of raw materials for Native American knappers. In the western part of this slate belt, especially in Davidson and Cabarrus counties, there are many veins impregnated with gold bearing ores. The rocks of Montgomery County are from the Paleozoic Era. These rocks are sometimes penetrated by numerous veins that exhibit small quantities of gold ore, often mixed with copper and iron ores. The State Board of Agriculture (1896:70) observed that the South Mountains, in Burke, McDowell, and Rutherford counties were particularly noted for their gold ores mixed with quartz rock.

While no current soil survey has been published for Montgomery County, the soils in the study area resemble a highly eroded Georgeville silty clay loam (Jurney and Davis 1930:11). These soils typically have a surface layer of reddish-brown silty clay loam to a depth of 0.4 to 0.6 foot in depth overlaying a red stiff or silty clay. As previously mentioned, the soils encountered in the survey area were highly eroded with shovel tests exhibiting, at most, 0.2 foot of red or reddish brown clay loam over red clay or, in many tests, exhibiting only red clay at the surface.

Erosion here, like elsewhere in this portion of the Piedmont, is primarily the result of increasingly erosive land-use activities during the postbellum, peaking by the early twentieth century (see Trimble 1974). Montgomery County has seen from 1.9 to 4.4 total inches of erosion (Trimble 1974:3). The 1934 *Reconnaissance Erosion*

Figure 4. View of Pee Dee River through hardwoods in the survey tract.

Survey of the State of North Carolina map shows this portion of the county having only moderate sheet erosion, however erosion in the survey area appeared to be a more severe based on the thin or even lack of an A horizon.

Although agricultural practices are considerably different today, erosion can still be locally severe, especially depending on the activities that take place. For example, wildfires can result in the erosion of up to about 0.05 ton per acre per year. However, mechanical site preparation, typically found in many timber stands, can cause the extraordinary erosion rate of 0.45 tons per acre per year (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1983:25).

Floristics

Today, three centuries of human activity have dramatically altered the Piedmont vegetation, crating a patchwork of forest land dominated by pine and cultivated land, including pasture. Early settlers found a continuous oak-hickory forest on the uplands and a mixture of broadleaf species on the floodplains. The clearing, cultivation, and subsequent abandonment of land not only promoted erosion, but also the sub-climax dominance of pine.

The current project area is in a second growth pine and hardwood forest, although some of the slopes toward the river exhibit only hardwoods. This type of vegetation, referred to as the Oak-Pine Forest Region by Braun (1950:259) generally includes white, black, post, red, and southern red oaks, white and pignut hickories, and loblolly pine.

Being next to a prominent water source, the survey tract is home to a variety of mammals, reptiles, and birds. Of the mammals, the most commonly found in the area are deer, raccoon, opossum, gray squirrel, and rabbit (Seibel et al. 2001:5). Snakes such as rattlesnakes and water moccasins are common as are a wide variety of birds.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNTHESIS

Previous Research

Montgomery County has received extensive archaeological attention. However, most of the work has been in the Uwharrie National Forest, north of the current project area. Abbott (1994) reports that between 1977 and 1981 Catawba College identified 208 archaeological sites, in 1978 Cooper and Norville (1978) identified 233 sites, in 1981 Cooper and Smith (1981) identified 214 sites, and a more recent survey in 1993 identified 32 sites (Harmon and Snedeker 1993a, 1993b). In all these cases, over 75% of the sites were recorded as prehistoric (Abbott 1994).

No surveys were found in any close proximity to the current survey area. It appears that relatively little compliance work has been performed outside the Uwharrie National Forest.

Prehistoric Synthesis

Overviews for North Carolina's prehistory, while of differing lengths and complexity, are available in virtually every compliance report prepared. There are, in addition, some "classic" sources well worth attention, such as Joffre Coe's *Formative Cultures* (Coe 1964), as well as some new general overviews (such as Ward 1983 and Coe 1995). These can be supplemented with a broad range of theses and dissertations produced by students of North Carolina's colleges and universities. Also extremely helpful, perhaps even essential, are a handful of recent local synthetic statements, such as that offered by Sassaman and Anderson (1994) for the Middle and Late Archaic. Only a few of the many sources are included in this study, but they should be adequate to give the reader a "feel" for the area and help establish a context for the various sites identified in the study area.

In the Carolina Piedmont, lithic scatters are the most common type of prehistoric site encountered. Goodyear et al. (1979:131-145) found that sites containing lithic scatters located in the inter-riverine Piedmont were geographically extensive and exhibited little artifact diversity. These sites have been interpreted as:

> limited or specialized activity sites which represent resource exploitation or other distinct functions. Nearly all investigators working in the Piedmont have related these sites to activities involving hunting, nut gathering, and procuring of lithic raw materials (Canouts and Goodyear 1985:185).

Although the vast majority of these sites are located in eroded areas and exhibit little to no subsurface integrity, Canouts and Goodyear (1985) argue that they have analytical value. This value lies in their horizontal rather than vertical dimensions. They argue that:

> future investigators of upland sites must effect broad-scale spatial analyses comparable to the temporal analyses effected through excavation of deeply stratified sites. Both endeavors are necessary, and neither is sufficient for the total understanding of Piedmont prehistory (Canouts and Goodyear 1985:193).

One observation that Canouts and Goodyear (1985) made is that lithic raw material ratios change through time. For instance, at the Gregg Shoals site in Elbert County, Georgia, the

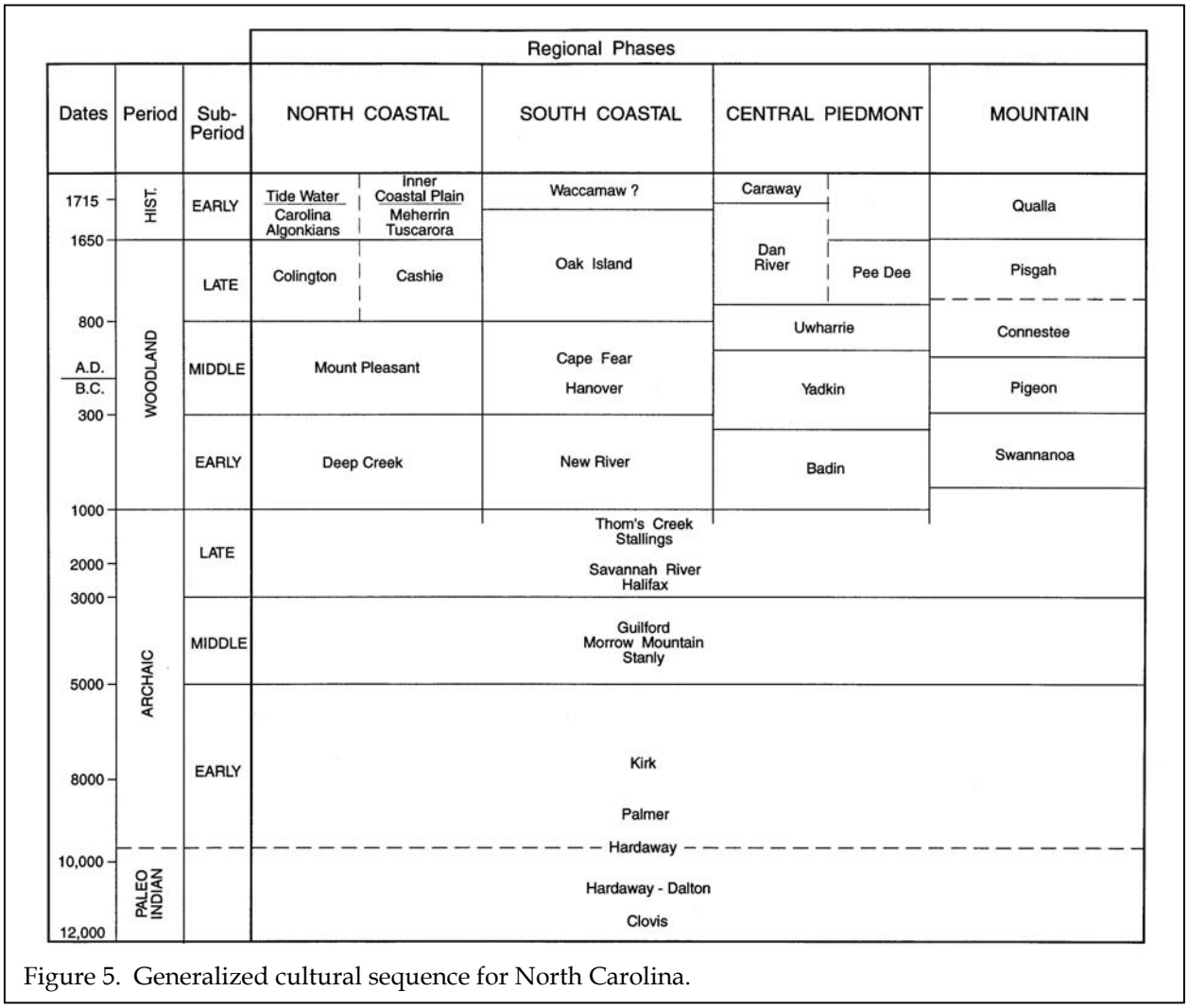

Figure 5. Generalized cultural sequence for North Carolina.

Early Archaic assemblage reflects greater use of non-local cryptocrystalline materials and the Late Archaic, greater use of non-quartz local material (see Tippitt and Marquardt 1981).

Paleoindian Period

The Paleoindian Period, most commonly dated from about 12,000 to 10,000 B.P., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notch projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1965). Oliver (1981, 1985) has proposed to extend the Paleoindian dating in the North Carolina Piedmont to perhaps as early as 14,000 B.P., incorporating the Hardaway Side-Notched and Palmer Corner-Notched types, usually accepted as Early Archaic, as representatives of the terminal phase. This view, verbally suggested by Coe for a number of years, has considerable technological appeal.[1] Oliver

[1] While never discussed by Coe at length, he did observe that many of the Hardaway points, especially from the lowest contexts, had facial fluting or thinning which, "in cases where the side-notches or basal portions were missing, . . . could be mistaken for fluted points of the Paleo-Indian period" (Coe 1964:64). While not an especially strong statement, it does reveal the formation of the concept. Further insight is offered by Ward's (1983:63) all too brief comments on the more recent investigations at the Hardaway site (see also Daniel 1992).

suggests a continuity from the Hardaway Blade through the Hardaway-Dalton to the Hardaway Side-Notched, eventually to the Palmer Side-Notched (Oliver 1985:199-200). While convincingly argued, this approach is not universally accepted.

The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented toward the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124). Survey data for Paleoindian tools, most notably fluted points, is rather dated for North Carolina (Brennan 1982; Peck 1988; Perkinson 1971, 9173; cf. Anderson 1990). In spite of this, the distribution offered by Anderson (1992b:Figure 5.1) reveals a rather general, and widespread, occurrence throughout the region.

Distinctive projectile points include lanceolates such as Clovis, Dalton, perhaps the Hardaway, and Big Sandy (Coe 1964; Phelps 1983; Oliver 1985). A temporal sequence of Paleoindian projectile points was proposed by Williams (1965:24-51), but according to Phelps (1983:18) there is little stratigraphic or chronometric evidence for it. While this is certainly true, a number of authors, such as Anderson (1992a) and Oliver (1985) have assembled impressive data sets. We are inclined to believe that while often not conclusively proven by stratigraphic excavations (and such proof may be an unreasonable expectation), there is a large body of circumstantial evidence. The weight of this evidence tends to provide considerable support.

Unfortunately, relatively little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization (see, however, Anderson 1992b for an excellent overview and synthesis of what is known). Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

Archaic Period

The Archaic Period, which dates from 10,000 to 3,000 B.P.[2], does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian Period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Associated with this is a reliance on a broad spectrum of small mammals, although the white tailed deer was likely the most commonly exploited animal. Archaic period assemblages, exemplified by corner-notched and broad-stemmed projectile points, are fairly common, perhaps because the swamps and drainages offered especially attractive ecotones.

[2] The terminal point for the Archaic is no clearer than that for the Paleoindian and many researchers suggest a terminal date of 4,000 B.P. rather than 3,000 B.P. There is also the question of whether ceramics, such as the fiber-tempered Stallings ware, will be included as Archaic, or will be included with the Woodland. Oliver, for example, argues that the inclusion of ceramics with Late Archaic attributes "complicates and confuses classification and interpretation needlessly" (Oliver 1981:20). He comments that according to the original definition of the Archaic, it "represents a preceramic horizon" and that "the presence of ceramics provides a convenient marker for separation of the Archaic and Woodland periods (Oliver 1981:21). Others would counter that such an approach ignores cultural continuity and forces an artificial, and perhaps unrealistic, separation. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:38-44), for example, include Stallings and Thom's Creek wares in their discussion of "Late Archaic Pottery." While this issue has been of considerable importance along the Carolina and Georgia coasts, it has never affected the Piedmont, which seems to have embraced pottery far later, well into the conventional Woodland period. The importance of the issue in the Sandhills, unfortunately, is not well known.

Some researchers (see for example, Ward 1983:65) suggest that there was a noticeable population increase from the Paleoindian into the Early Archaic. This has tentatively been associated with a greater emphasis on foraging. Diagnostic Early Archaic artifacts include the Kirk Corner Notched point. As previously discussed, Palmer points may be included with either the Paleoindian or Archaic period, depending on theoretical perspective. As the climate became hotter and drier than the previous Paleoindian period, resulting in vegetational changes, it also affected settlement patterning as evidenced by a long-term Kirk phase midden deposit at the Hardaway site (Coe 1964:60). This is believed to have been the result of a change in subsistence strategies.

Settlements during the Early Archaic suggest the presence of a few very large, and apparently intensively occupied, sites that can best be considered base camps. Hardaway might be one such site. In addition, there were numerous small sites which produce only a few artifacts — these are the "network of tracks" mentioned by Ward (1983:65). The base camps produce a wide range of artifact types and raw materials that has suggested to many researchers long-term, perhaps seasonal or multi-seasonal, occupation. In contrast, the smaller sites are thought of as special purpose or foraging sites (see Ward 1983:67).

Middle Archaic (8,000 to 6,000 B.P.) diagnostic artifacts include Morrow Mountain, Guilford, Stanly and Halifax projectile points. Much of our best information on the Middle Archaic comes from sites investigated west of the Appalachian Mountains, such as the work by Jeff Chapman and his students in the Little Tennessee River Valley (for a general overview see Chapman 1977, 1985a, 1985b). There is good evidence that Middle Archaic lithic technologies changed dramatically. End scrapers, at times associated with Paleoindian traditions, are discontinued, raw materials tend to reflect the greater use of locally available materials, and mortars are initially introduced. Associated with these technological changes there seem to also be some significant cultural modifications. Prepared burials begin to more commonly occur and storage pits are identified. The work at Middle Archaic river valley sites, with their evidence of a diverse floral and faunal subsistence base, seems to stand in stark contrast to Caldwell's Middle Archaic "Old Quartz Industry" of Georgia and the Carolinas, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

Among the most common of all Middle Archaic artifacts is the Morrow Mountain Stemmed projectile point. Originally divided into two varieties by Coe (1964:37,43) based primarily on the size of the blade and the stem. Morrow Mountain I points had relatively small triangular blades with short, pointed stems. Morrow Mountain II points had longer, narrower blades with long, tapered stems. Coe suggested a temporal sequence from Morrow Mountain I to Morrow Mountain II. While this has been rejected by some archaeologists, who suggest that the differences are entirely related to the life-stage of the point, the debate is far from settled and Coe has considerable support for his scenario.

The Morrow Mountain point is also important in our discussions since it represents a departure from the Carolina Stemmed Tradition. Coe has suggested that the groups responsible for the Middle Archaic Morrow Mountain (and the later Guilford points) were intrusive ("without any background" in Coe's words) into the North Carolina Piedmont, from the west, and were contemporaneous with the groups producing Stanly points (Coe 1964:122-123; see also Phelps 1983:23). Phelps, building on Coe, refers to the Morrow Mountain and Guilford as the "Western Intrusive horizon." Sassaman (1995) has recently proposed a scenario for the Morrow Mountain groups which would support this west-to-east time-transgressive process. Abbott and his colleagues, perhaps unaware of Sassaman's data, dismiss the concept, commenting that the shear distribution and number of these points "makes this position wholly untenable" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

The controversy surrounding Morrow Mountain also includes its posited date range. Coe (1964:123) did not expect the Morrow Mountain to predate 6500 B.P., yet more recent research in Tennessee reveals a date range of about 7500 to 6500 B.P. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:24) observe that the South Carolina dates have never matched the antiquity of their more western counterparts and suggest continuation to perhaps as late as 5500 B.P. In fact, they suggest that even later dates are possible since it can often be difficult to separate Morrow Mountain and Guilford points.

A recently defined point is the MALA. The term is an acronym standing for Middle Archaic and Late Archaic, the strata in which these points were first encountered at the Pen Point site (38BR383) in Barnwell County, South Carolina (Sassaman 1985). These stemmed and notched lanceolate points were originally found in a context suggesting a single-episode event with variation not based on temporal variation. The original discussion was explicitly worded to avoid application of a typology, although as Sassaman and Anderson (1994:27) note, the "type" has spread into more common usage. There are possible connections with both the Halifax points of North Carolina and the Benton points of the middle Tennessee River valley, while the "heartland" for the MALA appears confined to the lower middle Coastal Plain of South Carolina.

The available information has resulted in a variety of competing settlement models. Some argue for increased sedentism and a reduction of mobility (see Goodyear et al. 1979:111). Ward argues that the most appropriate model is one which includes relatively stable and sedentary hunters and gatherers "primarily adapted to the varied and rich resource base offered by the major alluvial valleys" (Ward 1983:69). While he recognizes the presence of "inter-riverine" sites, he discounts explanations that focus on seasonal rounds, suggesting "alternative explanations . . . [including] a wide range of adaptive responses." Most importantly, he notes that:

> the seasonal transhumance model and the sedentary model are opposite ends of a continuum, and in all likelihood variations on these two themes probably existed in different regions at different times throughout the Archaic period (Ward 1983:69).

Others suggest increased mobility during the Archaic (see Cable 1982). Sassaman (1983) has suggested that the Morrow Mountain phase people had a great deal of residential mobility, based on the variety of environmental zones they are found in and the lack of site diversity. The high level of mobility, coupled with the rapid replacement of these points, may help explain the seemingly large numbers of sites with Middle Archaic assemblages. Curiously, the later Guilford phase sites are not as widely distributed, perhaps suggesting that only certain micro-environments were used (cf. Ward [1983:68-69] who would likely reject the notion that substantially different environmental zones are, in fact, represented).

Recently Abbott et al. argue for a combination of these models, noting that the almost certain increase in population levels probably resulted in a contraction of local territories. With small territories there would have been significantly greater pressure to successfully exploit the limited resources by more frequent movement of camps. They discount the idea that these territories could have been exploited from a single base camp without horticultural technology. Abbott and his colleagues conclude, "increased residential mobility under such conditions may in fact represent a common stage in the development of sedentism" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

From excavations at a Sandhills site in Chesterfield County, South Carolina, Gunn and his colleague (Gunn and Wilson 1993) offer an alternative model for Middle Archaic settlement. He accepts that the uplands were desiccated from

global warming, but rather than limiting occupation, this environmental change made the area more attractive for residential base camps. Gunn and Wilson suggest that the open, or fringe, habitat of the upland margins would have been attractive to a wide variety of plant and animal species.

The Late Archaic, usually dated from 6,000 to 3,000 or 4,000 B.P., is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued to intensively exploit the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups with, the bulk of our data for this period coming from the Uwharrie region in North Carolina.

One of the more debated issues of the Late Archaic is the typology of the Savannah River Stemmed and its various diminutive forms. Oliver, refining Coe's (1964) original Savannah River Stemmed type and a small variant from Gaston (South 1959:153-157), developed a complete sequence of stemmed points that decrease uniformly in size through time (Oliver 1981, 1985). Specifically, he sees the progression from Savannah River Stemmed to Small Savannah River Stemmed to Gypsy Stemmed to Swannanoa from about 5000 B.P. to about 1,500 B.P. He also notes that the latter two forms are associated with Woodland pottery.

This reconstruction is still debated with a number of archaeologists expressing concern with what they see as typological overlap and ambiguity. They point to a dearth of radiocarbon dates and good excavation contexts at the same time they express concern with the application of this typology outside the North Carolina Piedmont (see, for a synopsis, Sassaman and Anderson 1990:158-162, 1994:35).

In addition to the presence of Savannah River points, the Late Archaic also witnessed the introduction of steatite vessels (see Coe 1964:112-113; Sassaman 1993), polished and pecked stone artifacts, and grinding stones. Some also include the introduction of fiber-tempered pottery about 4000 B.P. in the Late Archaic (for a discussion see Sassaman and Anderson 1994:38-44). This innovation is of special importance along the Georgia and South Carolina coasts, but seems to have had only minimal impact in the uplands in North Carolina.

There is evidence that during the Late Archaic the climate began to approximate modern climatic conditions. Rainfall increased resulting in a more lush vegetation pattern. The pollen record indicates an increase in pine which reduced the oak-hickory nut masts which previously were so widespread. This change probably affected settlement patterning since nut masts were now more isolated and concentrated. From research in the Savannah River valley near Aiken, South Carolina, Sassaman has found considerable diversity in Late Archaic site types with sites occurring in virtually every upland environmental zone. He suggests that this more complex settlement pattern evolved from an increasingly complex socio-economic system. While it is unlikely that this model can be simply transferred to the Piedmont of South Carolina without an extensive review of site data and micro-environmental data, it does demonstrate one approach to understanding the transition from Archaic to Woodland.

Woodland Period

As previously discussed, there are those who see the Woodland beginning with the introduction of pottery suggestive of influences from northern cultures. In the Piedmont, the Early Woodland is marked by a pottery type defined by Coe (1964:27-29) as Badin[3]. This pottery is identified as having very fine sand in the paste with an occasional pebble. Coe identified cord-marked, fabric-marked, net-

[3]The ceramics suggest clear regional differences during the Woodland which seem to only be magnified during the later phases. Ward (1983:71), for example, notes that "marked distinctions" between the pottery from the Buggs Island and Gaston Reservoirs and that from the south-central Piedmont.

impressed, and plain surface finishes. Beyond this pottery little more is known about the makers of the Badin wares that is known about those who made New River wares.

The dominant Middle Woodland ceramic type is typically identified as the Yadkin series. Characterized by a crushed quartz temper the pottery includes surface treatments of cord-marked, fabric-marked, and a very few linear check-stamped sherds (Coe 1964:30-32). It is regrettable that several of the seemingly "best" Yadkin sites, such as the Trestle site (31AN19) explored by Peter Cooper (Ward 1983:72-73), have never been published.

In some respects the Late Woodland (1,200 B.P. to 400 B.P.) may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500-700 years. From the vantage point of the Middle Savannah Valley Sassaman and his colleagues note that, "the Late Woodland is difficult to delineate typologically from its antecedent or from the subsequent Mississippian period" (Sassaman et al. 1990:14). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

The Late Woodland is typically associated with small triangular points such as Uwharrie, Caraway, Pee Dee, and Clarksville (Coe n.d., 1964:49; Oliver 1985; South 1959:144-146). The characteristic pottery is the Uwharrie series, which contains crushed quartz (one characteristic of which is its tendency to protrude through the wall of the pottery). This series included cord-marked and net-impressed surface treatments. The ware was described by Coe in the unpublished Poole site report (Coe n.d.).[4] This pottery appears to represent an evolution fro the earlier Yadkin wares (Coe 1995:156). Of equal interest is a radiocarbon date of A.D. 1610, suggesting that this pottery lasted well into the protohistoric. Coe also notes that "Town Creek and other villages situated along the fall line between the Piedmont and the Coastal Plain seem to have formed a southern boundary for the Production and use of Uwharrie ware," which he suggests was made by the ancestors of the Sara, Tutelo, Occaneechi, Saponi, and Keyauwee (Coe 1995:158). If this is correct, Uwharrie pottery may be exceedingly rare in the Piedmont.

Mississippian Period

The Mississippian in the central Piedmont of North Carolina is intimately tied to the Pee Dee. In spite of this Ward only briefly mentions the culture in his synthesis of the North Carolina Piedmont (Ward 1983:63) and until recently one had to piece together ideas and concepts largely from Reid's (1967) typology of the pottery (which does provide a little background) or Ferguson's Appalachian Mississippian, which included central and northern Georgia, the Middle Chattahoochee River Valley, and the Atlantic Coastal Plain. More recently Coe (1995) has filled in at least some of the blanks in Pee Dee research, although much still remains to be explored.

However, the Mississippian in the eastern portion of the Appalachians differs from the rest of the southeast. Known in this area as the Pisgah Phase, villages were known to have been located in floodplain environments and often had platform mounds associated with the settlement (Ward and Davis 1999:160). Most of the information on the Pisgah culture was obtained from excavations from the Warren Wilson Site (31BN29), Garden Creek Mound 1 (31HW1), Brunk (31BN151), and Plum Grove (40WG17), see for example Dickens (1970), Keel (1976), and Moore 1981 and 2002).

[4]This study was intended to be published under a monograph series entitled, *University of North Carolina Laboratory of American Archaeology Publications,* but was never completed. The work was conducted in 1936, although the ensuing report is undated.

The Pisgah Phase has produced such artifacts as pipes, discs, beads, animal head effigies, and toy vessels (see Mohler et al. 2001; Dickens 1976; Keel 1976; Moore 1981). In general these people were sedentary with smaller sites clustered around a larger village with a mound (Ward and Davis 1999:160). Their subsistence was based on deer, bear, wild turkey, squirrels, rabbits, opossum, raccoons, fish, and turtles (Ward and Davis 1999:169-171; Runquist 1979).

In Montgomery County, the common tradition is known as the Pee Dee culture. The Town Creek site (31MG2 and 31MG3) is an example of this culture. While several types of pottery were found at this site, textile wrapped pottery is unique to Pee Dee pottery (Ward and Davis 1999:127). Also found at Town Creek are complicated-stamped designs and burnished surfaces, which appear to predate the textile wrapped designs (Ward and Davis 1999:127).

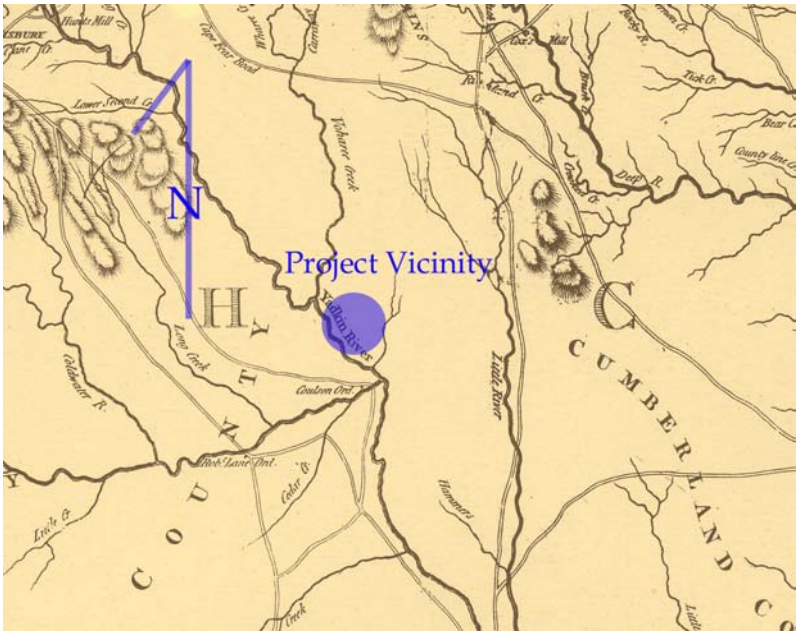

Figure 6. Portion of Mouzon's 1775 *An Accurate Map of North and South Carolina* showing the project vicinity.

Figure 7. Portion of the Mac Rae-Brazier *A New Map of the State of North Carolina* from 1833 showing the project area.

Historic Synopsis

Spanish explorers were the first Europeans to travel through the Carolinas. The explorations began with Hernando De Soto in the 1540s and then Juan Pardo in 1566 (Rinehart 2000:9). With the new explorers came disease, which was devastating to the Native Americans, greatly reducing their population.

The seventeenth century brought an influx of colonists to the low priced, fertile land (Seibel et al. 2001:14). Included were the English, Scottish, Germans, and Scottish-Irish.

This increase of population forced the creation of Montgomery County in 1779 from Anson County (Corbitt 1950:152). The first county seat was at Lilesville, west of the Pee Dee River. After

moving the county seat several times, by 1844, Troy would be the final stop. The boundary of Montgomery County changed several times including in 1798, 1802, 1803, 1822, 1829, and in 1841 when Stanly County was formed from the western half of Montgomery.

Figure 8. Portion of the 1865 U.S. Coast Survey showing the project area.

While there was an increase in population in Montgomery County, the majority of habitants chose the northwestern portion of the county in the Uwharrie Mountains. Farming was a necessity, however other occupations such as blacksmiths, tanners, coopers, weavers, and wagon makers were also taking shape (Powell 1989).

The early nineteenth century gave way to small towns, such as Mount Gilead, settled in 1830. The town started as a cotton trading center, but after the Norfolk Southern Railway arrived in the community, became a depot town (Bishir and Southern 2003:282).

The nineteenth century saw a massive rush to the county when gold was discovered in the Uwharrie Mountains. Gold-mining companies rushed to North Carolina and from 1838 to 1849, Montgomery County had its most influential economic activity during that decade (Rinehart 2000:10, Seibel et al. 2001:15).

After the gold rush, life settled down and subsistence farming became a way of life. Crops such as corn, beans, peas, and tobacco were grown (Seibel et al. 2001:15) and several mills, such as corn, flour, saw, cotton, and wool, were being operated throughout the county (Rinehart 2000). Farming practices during this time period greatly contributed to the soil erosion and depletion of nutrients in the Piedmont (Trimble 1974).

The twentieth century in Montgomery County yielded several small-scale industries such as milling and textile manufacturing (Rinehart 2000:12). During the 1920s many of the roads in Montgomery County were surfaced and the town of Troy laid sewer lines and paved the streets (Seibel et al. 2001:16).

The federal government purchased land in the northwestern portion of the county in the early 1930s and by 1961, this land was designated the Uwharrie National Forest (Rinehart 2000:12).

The twentieth century also saw an increase in the altering of rivers. Several rivers, for example, the Pee Dee, were dammed for flood control and hydroelectric power (Powell 1989:4). In 1928, the Lake Tillery Dam, one of the largest dams, was built by the Electric Bond & Share Company for hydroelectric power (Bishir and Southern 2003:282).

While some small-scale farming is still present in Montgomery County, the largest source of income is tourism in the Uwharrie National Forest (Rinehart 2000:12).

METHODS

Archaeological Field Methods

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along transects also placed every 100 feet.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially by transect. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1.0 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (defined by the presence of three or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 50 feet area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. These tests would be placed at 25 to 50 foot intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. The information required for completion of North Carolina site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators.

These proposed techniques were implemented with few modifications. Transects were set up following the water edge from the north to the south. Shovel tests along Transects 1-8 were conducted going east from the water edge, while the remaining transects (9-48) had shovel tests running north and south from the water edge. A total of 226 shovel tests were excavated along 48 transect lines. In practice the site tests were far more intensive than the originally proposed cruciform testing.

The GPS positions were taken with a Garmin GPS 76 rover that tracks up to twelve satellites, each with a separate channel that is continuously being read. The benefit of parallel channel receivers is their improved sensitivity and ability to obtain and hold a satellite lock in difficult situations, such as in forests or urban environments where signal obstruction is a frequent problem. This was a vital concern for the study tract given that the sites were located in forested areas.

GPS accuracy is generally affected by a number of sources of potential error, including errors with satellite clocks, multipathing, and selective availability. Satellite clock errors can occur when the satellite's clock is off by as little as a millisecond, or when a slightly-askew orbit results in a distance error. Multipathing occurs when the signal bounces off trees, chain-link fences, or bodies of water. Multipathing probably did occur in the project area due to the tree cover.

Site Evaluation

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the North Carolina Division of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

> the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and

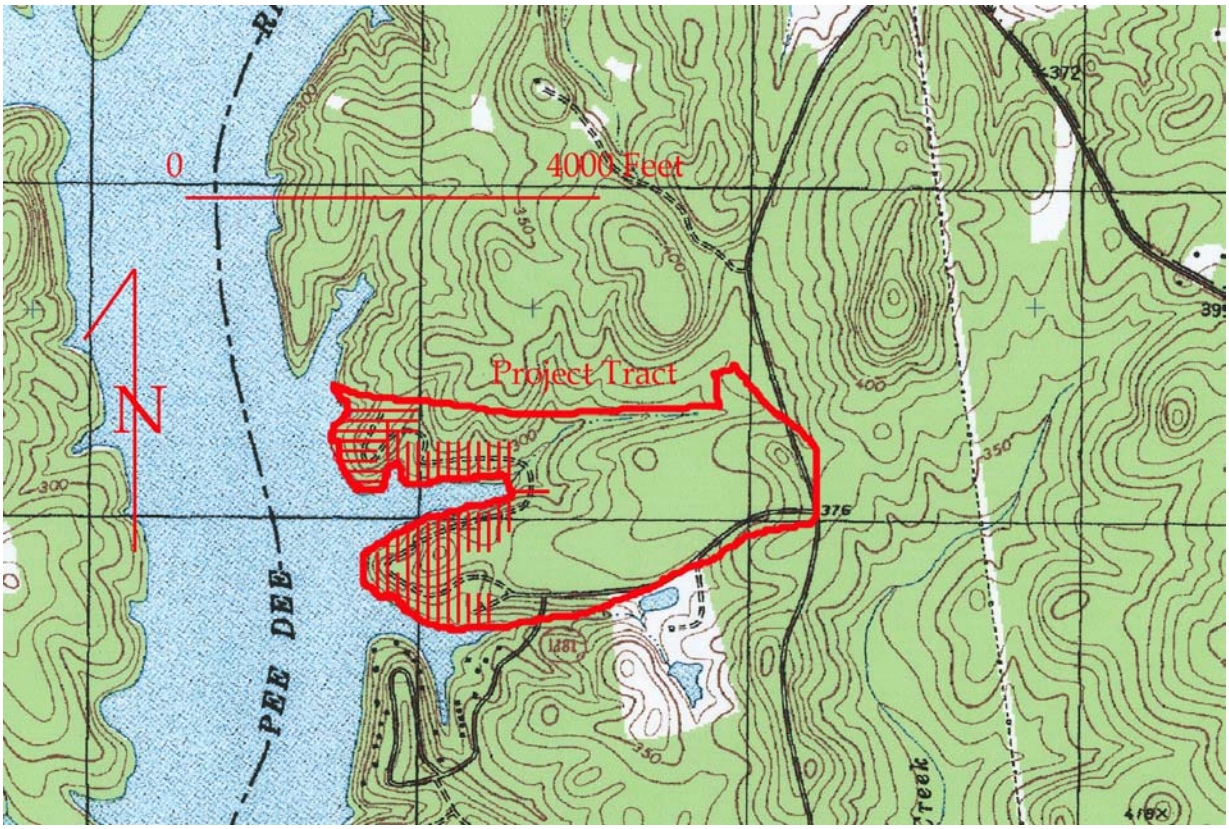

Figure 9. Project area with transects.

culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and

a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or

b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or

c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or

d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such

as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;

- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and

- identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been summarized, but we have tried to focus on an archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

Laboratory Analysis

The cleaning and analysis of artifacts was conducted in Columbia at the Chicora Foundation laboratories. These materials have been catalogued and accessioned for curation at the Office of State Archaeology, the closest regional repository. The site forms for the identified archaeological sites has been filed with the Office of State Archaeology. Field notes and photographic materials have been prepared for curation using archival standards and will be transferred to that agency as soon as the project is complete.

Debitage categories might include primary (defined as flakes with 90% or more cortex), secondary (defined as having less than 90% cortex), or interior (defined as having no cortex). These categories, widely used, are briefly explained by Yohe (1996:54-56; for further information see Blanton et al. 1986 or Oliver et al. 1986).

Shatter is often called chunks by other researchers. Either term is typically applied to angular pieces of debitage of various sizes. They lack observable striking platforms, dorsal and ventral faces, or other characteristics of flakes. These items are often, although not always blocky and angular. Shatter is thought to have been produced in greatest numbers in the very earliest stages of tool production.

Points, also called hafted bifaces by some, are symmetrical, pointed bifaces which are modified for hafting. The diagnostic lithic remains were compared to published typological descriptions for the various projectile points such as Coe (1952, 1964), Oliver (1981), and South (1959).

At this survey level tools are defined very simply, being placed in broad morphological categories. Our laboratory methods, for example, define a biface as an artifact with flakes removed on both sides (not distinguishing between performs, early stage reductions, and so forth); a core is a piece of raw material from which flakes have been removed; an end scraper is a blade tool with at least one convex end which exhibits a steep angle; a used flake is a chip of stone that was used as a tool, exhibiting edge damage or wear; and a side scraper is a flake tool in which one of the long edges was retouched to serve as the scraping edge. These definitions generally follow those provided by Yohe (1996).

The ceramics were compared to published type descriptions where available (such as Coe 1964).

RESULTS OF SURVEY

Introduction

As a result of this cultural resources survey, four archaeological sites (31MG1738-1741) were identified (Figure 10). All four sites are prehistoric although only 31MG1739 contains diagnostic (Late Archaic) remains. The remaining three sites (31MG1738, 31MG1740, and 31MG1741) are lithic scatters with no diagnostic artifacts. These sites are recommended not eligible for the National Register because of their inability to address significant research questions and lack of integrity.

Archaeological Resources

31MG1738

Site 31MG1738 (Figure 11) consists of a scatter of prehistoric lithics, located on a hilltop at an elevation of 330 feet AMSL. The site is about 300 feet east of the Pee Dee River. A central UTM coordinate is 583073E 3903898N (NAD27 datum).

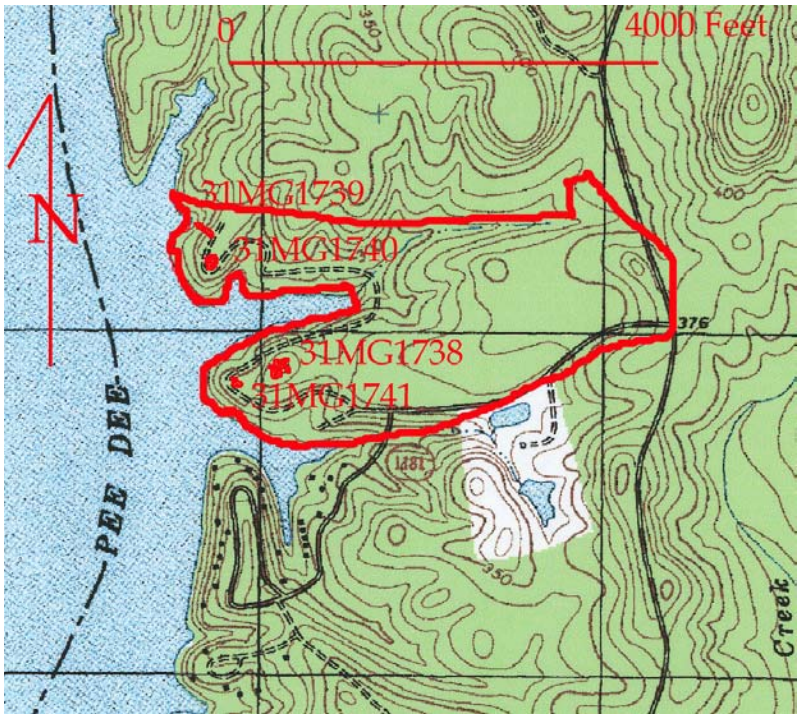

Figure 10. Location of sites 31MG1738-1741.

Vegetation in the site area includes a mixed pine and hardwood forest. The site is accessible from a woods road off SR-1181.

Shovel tests were completed at the originally proposed 100-foot intervals with Transect 42, Shovel Test 5 (430R650) positive. Positive shovel tests were also found on Transect 41. Since the curvature of the road from where the original transects were laid out prevented an exact cruciform grid from being executed for additional shovel testing, additional transect lines were placed at 50-foot intervals between the original transects with positive tests. These 50-foot transects are designated by the western transect number then a .5. For example, the 50-foot transect added to the right (east) of Transect 41 is called 41.5. Shovel tests along the 50-foot (.5) transect lines were performed at 50-foot intervals. In addition, a shovel test was placed at 50-foot intervals between original shovel tests on the original transect lines.

A total of 65 shovel tests were excavated with 19 positive (29%). Shovel test profiles were a dark reddish brown (2.5YR4/6) loamy clay to a depth of 0.2 foot over red (2.5YR4/6) clay. While no recent soil survey for Montgomery County has been completed, the soil appears to resemble an eroded Georgeville silty clay loam according to the 1930 soil survey (Jurney and Davis 1930:11). According to the

soil survey, the surface soil is reddish brown clay loam to a depth of 0.8 foot over a red clay. This would suggest that the soils at 31MG1738 have lost at least 0.5 foot of its original soil.

Artifacts were found in the top 0.2 layer

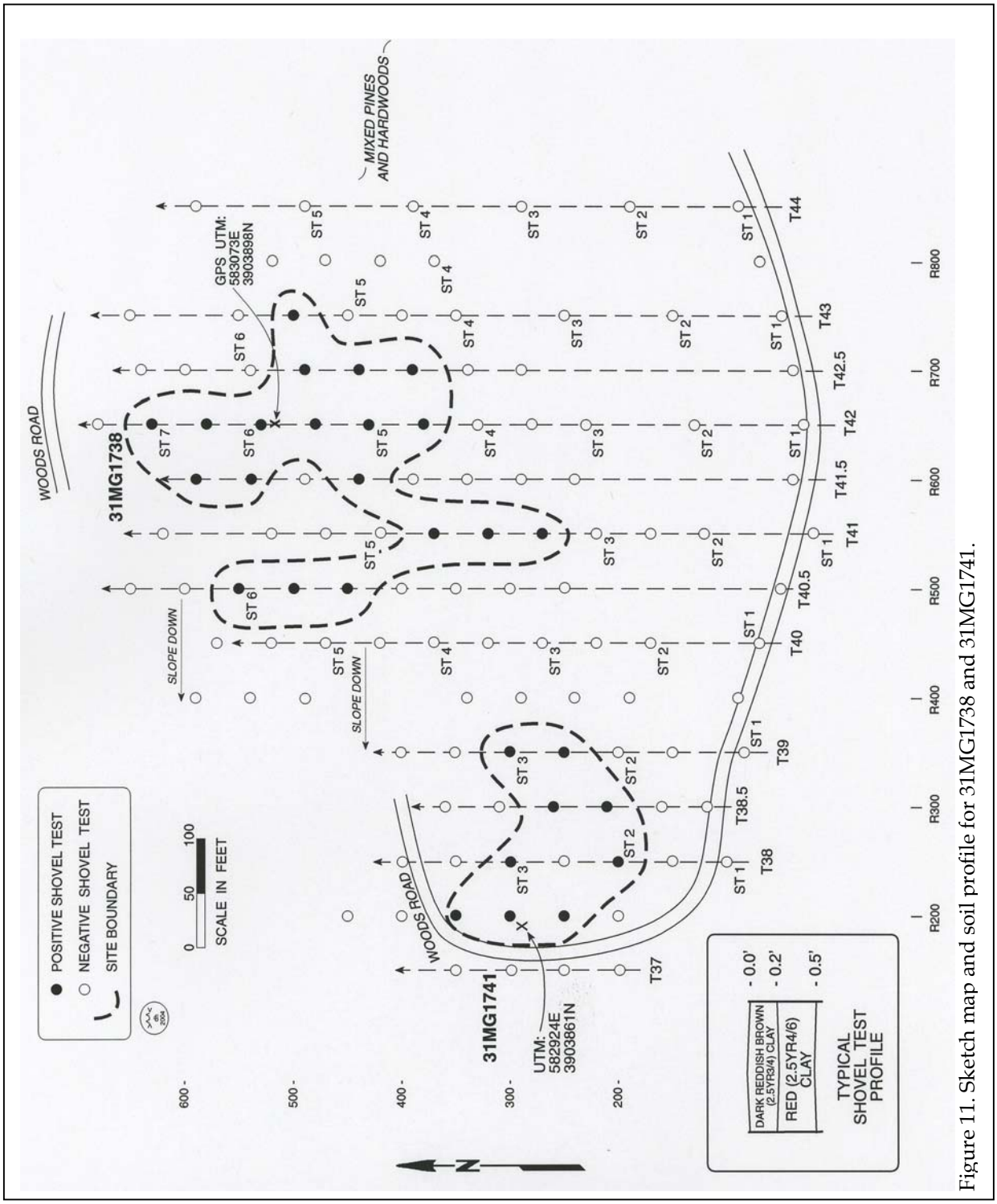

Figure 11. Sketch map and soil profile for 31MG1738 and 31MG1741.

Table 1.
Artifacts from 31MG1738

	Flakes		
	Metavolcanic	Quartz	Siltstone
270R550	1		1
320R550	3		
370R550	2		
380R650	2		
390R700	1		
430R650	1		
440R600	1		
440R700	1		
450R500	2	1	
480R650	1		
490R700	1		
500R500	1		
500R750	1		
530R650	1		
540R600	2		
550R500	1		
580R650	2		
590R600	1		
630R650	2		
TOTAL	27	1	1

of loamy clay soil. An estimated site dimension based on the positive shovel tests is 250 feet east-west by 350 feet north-south.

As previously mentioned, the site is a prehistoric lithic site (Table 1). The only type of lithic found were flakes (n=29). The materials of the flakes include quartz (n=1), metavolcanic (n=27), and siltstone (n=1). No diagnostic materials were found that could date the site. In addition, no faunal material or other food remains were found which could give insight as to diet or seasonality of the site, both important research questions. It appears that the site may have been inhabited short-term (due to the limited data sets) and may not be the main habitation site (given the lack of dietary evidence).

However, the site integrity has been severely damaged due to erosion. At least 0.5 foot of soil is gone and in some cases just outside the survey area, red clay is exposed at the surface. No features were found and it is unlikely, due to erosion, that any intact features, were they present, will be found.

Site 31MG1738 is recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places for its inability to address significant research questions and lack of integrity due to erosion. No additional management activity is recommended pending review by the State Historic Preservation Office.

31MG1739

Site 31MG1739 (Figure 12) is a Late Archaic lithic site situated on a terrace edge at an elevation of 300 feet AMSL. The site is 50 feet east of the Pee Dee River and the vegetation is a mature hardwood forest. A central UTM coordinate is 582833E 3904239N (NAD27 datum).

Shovel tests were completed at the originally proposed 100-foot intervals with one shovel test on Transect 2 (300R200) and one shovel test on Transect 3 (200R300) were positive. Close interval shovel testing was performed in a simple cruciform pattern at 50-foot intervals until two consecutive negative tests were encountered. Of the 24 shovel tests excavated, four were positive (16%) producing six flakes (Table 2). Surface artifacts, a projectile point and nine flakes, were also found. All the flakes were metavolcanic.

Shovel tests produced a red (2.5YR4/6) clay loam to a depth of 0.2 foot over a red (2.5YR4/6) clay. While no recent soil survey has been written, the soil that most closely resembles what was found in the field according to the 1930 soil survey is Georgeville silty clay loam (Jurney and Davis:1930:11). This soil generally has a 0.8 foot layer of reddish brown or red silty clay loam. Artifacts were found in the top 0.2 foot of soil.

An estimated site dimension, according to positive shovel tests and surface finds, is 220 feet northwest-southeast by 70 feet northeast-

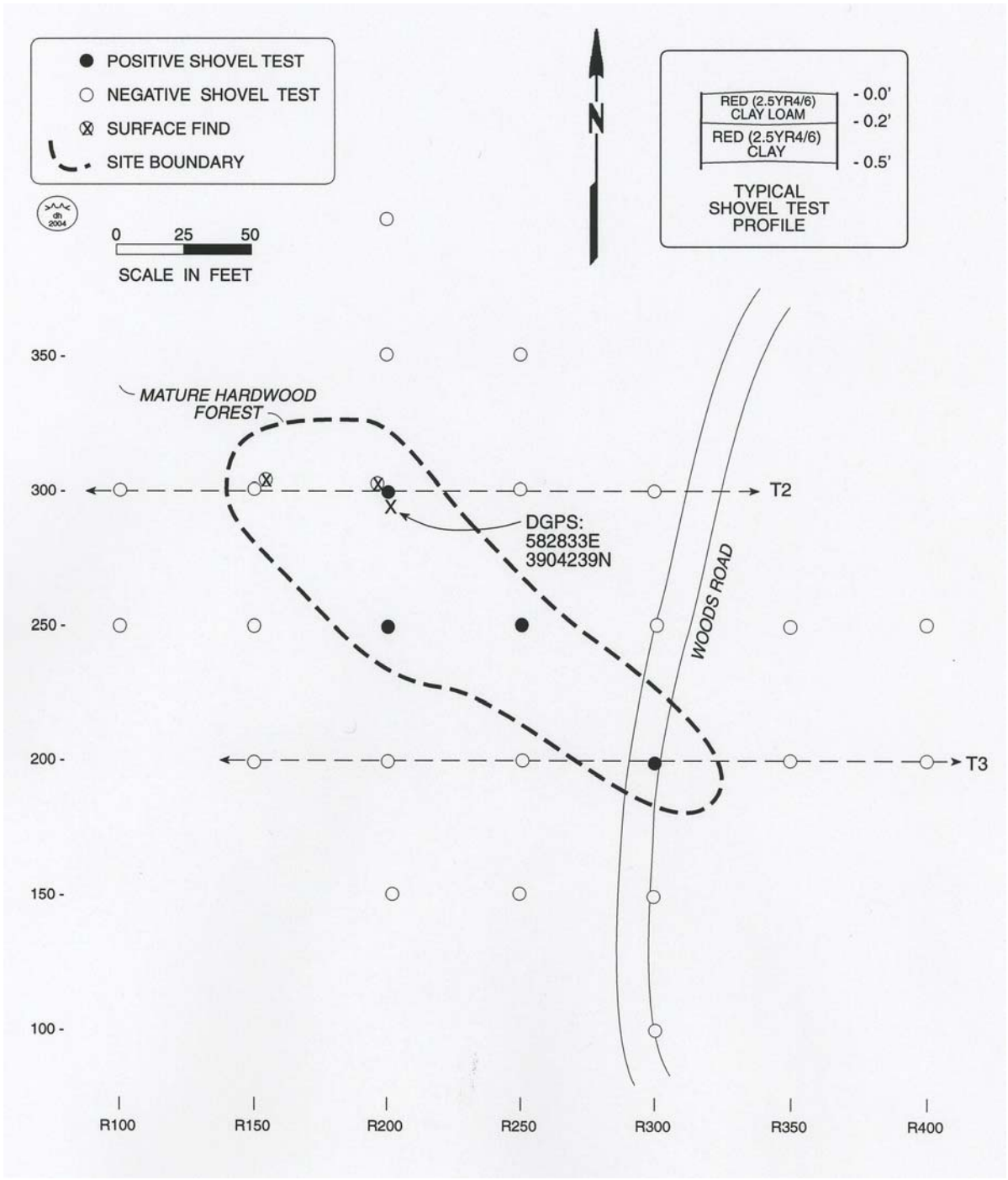

Figure 12. Sketch map and soil profile for 31MG1739.

southwest.

As previously mentioned, the site dates to the Late Archaic, based on one diagnostic artifact. The projectile point (Figure 13), a Small Savannah River Stemmed, measures 49.8 mm in length, 22.4 mm in width, and its thickness is 8.9 mm at the base (Coe 1964).

Site 31MG1739 is sparse and with limited data sets, it is unlikely this site will be able to address any significant research questions such as diet (with no faunal material).

In addition, it appears that at least 0.5 foot of the original soil has been eroded. Since the site is located on a hillside, it is likely that erosion has been accelerated. No features were found and it is unlikely that any intact features will be present because of the severe erosion.

Site 31MG1739 is recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places for its inability to address significant research questions and the lack of integrity from erosion. No additional management activity is recommended pending review by the State Historic Preservation Office.

Figure 13. View of Small Savannah River Stemmed point found at 31MG1739.

31MG1740

Site 31MG1740 (Figure 14) is a surface and subsurface scatter of prehistoric lithics. The site is situated on a hill side slope at an elevation of about 310 feet AMSL. The site is about 300 feet from the Pee Dee River and a UTM coordinate for the site is 582830E 3904146N (NAD27 datum).

Table 2.
Artifacts from 31MG1739

	Metavolcanic Flake	Projectile Point
Surface	9	1
250R200	1	
250R250	2	
300R200	2	
450R200	1	
TOTAL	15	1

Vegetation at the site is a mixed pine and hardwood forest and access may be obtained by a woods road off of SR-1181, which runs through the southern portion of the site.

Shovel tests were performed at 100-foot intervals with Transect 5, Shovel Test 3 (350R200) positive. Close interval testing was performed at 50-foot intervals along the cardinal directions off each positive test until two consecutive negative tests were encountered. A total of 40 shovel tests were excavated with 10 positive (30%). An estimated site dimension given these positive shovel tests is 100 feet east-west by 150 feet north-south.

Shovel tests produced a red (2.5YR4/6) clay loam to a depth of 0.2 foot over a red (2.5YR4/6) clay. While no recent soil survey has been written, the soil that most closely resembles what was found in the field according to the 1930 soil survey is Georgeville silty clay loam (Jurney and Davis:1930:11). This soil generally has a 0.8 foot layer of reddish brown or red silty clay loam. Artifacts were found in the top 0.2 foot of soil.

The only artifacts found were flakes (n=49), which are not diagnostic (Table 3). All the flakes are metavolcanic and one is used. However, flakes alone do not contain enough information to address significant research questions. If additional faunal or ethnobotanical remains were found, questions as to diet and seasonality of the camp might be addressed. With only one data set and no features, it is unlikely that any significant research questions can be

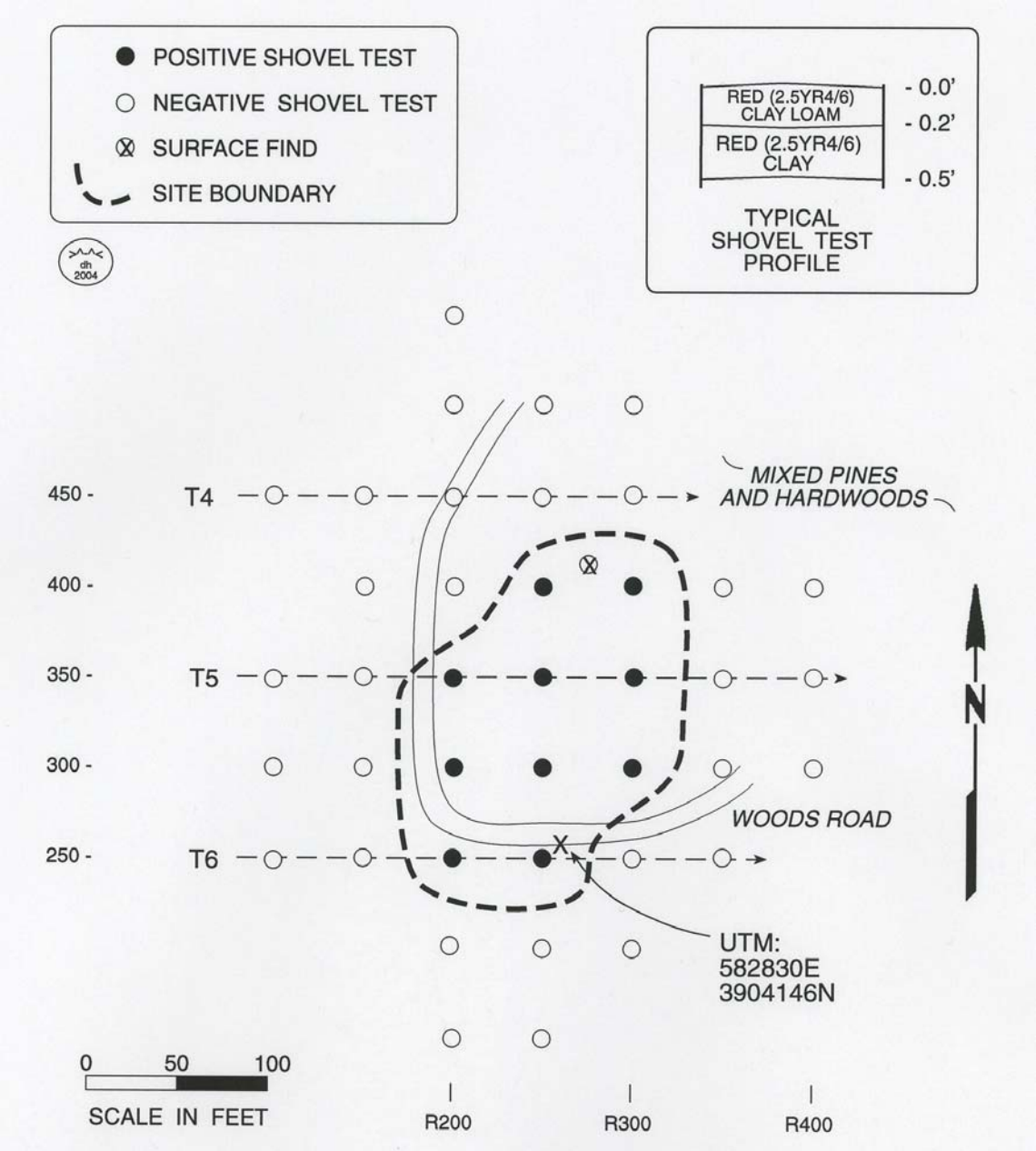

Figure 14. Sketch map and soil profile for 31MG1740.

addressed.

In addition, erosion on the hillside is severe, possibly missing at least 0.5 foot of soil. As previously mentioned, no features were found and given the highly eroded soils, it is unlikely that any intact features, were there any, will be found.

Site 31MG1740 is recommended not eligible for the National Register for its inability to address significant research questions and poor integrity from erosion. No additional management activity is recommended pending review by the State Historic Preservation Office.

Table 3.
Artifacts from 31MG1740

	Metavolcanic Flake
Surface	25
250R200	2
250R250	3
300R200	2
300R250	4
300R300	2
350R200	1
350R250	1
350R300	2
400R250	5
400R300	2
TOTAL	49

31MG1741

Site 31MG1741 (see Figure 11) is a subsurface scatter of prehistoric artifacts located on a toe slope at an elevation of 310 feet AMSL. Vegetation in the area consists of a mixed pine and hardwood forest. A woods road, which provides access to the site from SR-1181, is the western boundary for 31MG1741. A UTM coordinate for the site is 582924E 3903861N (NAD27 datum). The site is about 300 feet from the Pee Dee River.

Shovel tests were completed at the originally proposed 100-foot intervals with the first positive shovel test occurring at Transect 38, Shovel test 2 (200R250). Additional shovel testing was performed at 50-foot intervals along the original transect lines and additional transect lines were added at 50-foot intervals between the original transects. Shovel tests on these lines, designated by the transect number to the west then a .5, were conducted at 50-foot intervals.

A total 30 shovel tests were excavated with nine positive (30%). Shovel test profiles produced a dark reddish brown (2.5YR3.4) loamy clay to a depth of 0.2 foot over a red (2/5YR4/6) clay. While no recent soil survey for Montgomery County has been completed, the soil appears to resemble an eroded Georgeville silty clay loam according to the 1930 soil survey (Jurney and Davis 1930:11). According to the soil survey, the surface soil is reddish brown clay loam to a depth of 0.8 foot over a red clay. This would reveal that the soils in 31MG1741 have lost at least 0.5 foot of its original soil.

Twelve flakes and one small sherd were found in the shovel tests (Table 4). This site, like the others found during the survey, exhibits sparse data sets – lacking diagnostic remains (the single sherd is too small and eroded to provide temporal data other than a broad Woodland

Figure 15. View of 31MG1740 overlooking the Pee Dee River.

Table 4.
Artifacts from 31MG1741

	Metavolcanic Flake	Small Sherd
200R250	3	
210R300	1	
240R350	3	
250R200	1	
260R300	1	
290R350		1
300R200	1	
300R250	1	
350R200	1	
TOTAL	12	1

Period time frame), features, or other remains necessary to address significant research questions.

Erosion has damaged the integrity of the site by removing at least 0.5 foot of the original soil. Since artifacts were found in the top 0.2 foot of soil, it is possible that a large portion of the site has already been eroded into the nearby river. No features were found and it is unlikely that intact features will be found.

Site 31MG1741 is recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places for its inability to address significant research questions and its lack of integrity. No additional management activity is recommended pending review by the State Historic Preservation Office.

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of the western portion of a 150 acre tract for the development of boathouses in Montgomery County, North Carolina. Activities on the tract will include clearing, grubbing, grading, construction of utilities, and erection of structures. This study, conducted for Chambers Engineering, provides the results of that investigation and is intended to assist that organization comply with the historic preservation responsibilities associated with permitting the facility.

The survey consists of an area that is currently forested. Erosion is apparent on the entire tract, having lost between 0.5 and 0.8 foot of the original soil.

Four archaeological sites (31MG1738-1741) were identified during the survey. Site 31MG1739 had a single projectile point, dating it to the Late Archaic, and 31MG 1741 had a single small sherd, indicating at least some occupation into the Woodland Period. The artifact assemblage at the remaining three sites consists of only flakes. All four sites are recommended not eligible for the National Register due to their inability to address significant research questions and lack of integrity.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered during construction activities. As always, contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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